SOME NEW BOOKS.

Portugal.

The volume devoted to *Portugal*, which forms the latest addition to the "Story of the Nations" series, now publishing by the Putnams, differs in a material particular from most of its predecessors. They were simply summaries of facts obtainable elsewhere in English in a more extended and elaborate form. This, on the other hand, is the first authentic history of Portugal in the English language, the first which embodies the ripest results of modern research and criticism. Dunham's history of Portugal is full of blunders, and it may be said of the other English books on the subject that they are either untrustworthy or incomplete. The usefulness of the book before us will be made patent when we point out that within the last half century the history of Portugal has been entirely rewritten by German or Portuguese disciples of Niebuhr and Ranke. It is the discoveries and deductions of these first-hand investigators which Mr. H. Morse Stephens has turned to account in the present volume.

I.

The first point to be noted, for there is a current impression to the contrary, is that the evolution of the Portuguese nationality and language is due solely to historical causes, and not at all to ethnological or geographical conditions. The misconceptions on this subject are widespread and deeply rooted among the Portuguese themselves, as well as among foreigners. Portugal was mistakenly identified by native writers with Lusitania as early as the fifteenth century, and the identification was soon universally accepted, being ultimately embalmed by Camoens in the title of his famous epic "Os Lusiados," or "The Lusiads." On this false identification has been based the theory that the Portuguese were a distinct branch of the Celtic population of the Iberian peninsula, identical with the tribe of Lusitanians spoken of by Strabo, as well as with the Lusitanians who, under the leadership of Viriathus, struggled long and gallantly against the Roman republic. As a matter of fact the Celtic tribe of Lusitanians dwelt, according to Strabo, in the district north of the Tagus, whereas the Lusitania of the Latin historians of the republic undoubtedly lay to the south of that river. Under all the subsequent divisions of the peninsula by Roman administrators the name Lusitania was given to a district south of the Tagus, and it therefore did not embrace the provinces of Entre Minho e Douro, Tras-os-Montes, and Beira, which form the nucleus and core of modern Portugal. Neither is there any evidence that the region now included in Portugal was less thoroughly Romanized than other parts of the peninsula, or that the Latin dialect there spoken differed in any particular from the vernacular of the Romanized Celts in southern and eastern Spain. Throughout the country which we now call Portugal there are deep traces of the Roman occupation in roads and bridges, in the beautiful remains at Leiria, and in the aqueduct and the ruins of the temple of Diana at Evora. The Portuguese customary law, moreover, is based on the old Roman law, and many Portuguese institutions show the direct influence of Rome. Notably is this the case with regard to municipal organizations; many Portuguese cities have had a continuous existence since the Roman empire, and the *duumviri* and *boni homines* of those days have their counterparts in the municipal governments of the present time. It should be added that the stamp impressed by Rome was less effaced in Portugal than in other parts of the peninsula by the Moorish invaders, because, owing to the distance from Cordova, the functions of local administration were granted almost exclusively to the Mosarabs, as the native converts to Islam were termed, men who felt the importance of keeping the adherents of the two prevailing religions from coming to blows.

There was, indeed, up to the twelfth century, absolutely nothing to distinguish the inhabitants of what is now called Portugal from the inhabitants of the Spanish kingdom of Gallicia which adjoined them on the north. Indeed, up to 1140, when for the first time its ruler assumed the title of King, Portugal was merely a fief or feudal adjunct of Gallicia. It was Bermudo II., King of Gallicia, who, in 997—there had been temporarily successful raids before—definitely won back the most northern section of modern Portugal from the Moors by seizing Oporto and occupying the province now known as the Entre Minho e Douro. Some sixty years later, after the disruption of the Ommyad caliphate at Cordova, Ferdinand the Great, King of Leon, Castile, and Gallicia, crossed the Douro, and invaded the province known as the Beira. After taking Lamego, Viseu, and Coimbra, he extended his conquests to the Mondego River, and consolidated them into a feudal countship. The kingdom of Portugal, however, was not to take its name from the countship of Coimbra, but from a much smaller countship adjoining it on the north, "the Comitatus Portucalensis," so called because it contained the famous city at the mouth of the Douro, known in Greek and Roman times as the Portus Cale, and in modern days as Oporto, or "the Port." On the death of Ferdinand the Great, his three kingdoms were distributed among his three sons, the youngest, Garcia, receiving Gallicia, to which as feudal appanages, belonged the two counties of Oporto and Coimbra. After some fratricidal wars all of the three kingdoms were once more (in 1073) united under Ferdinand's second son, Alfonso of Leon. Thus at this date we see the nucleus of Portugal included in Gallicia, which is itself absorbed in the larger kingdoms of Castile and Leon. The beginning, however, of the nationalizing process was not far distant. The advent of a new Moorish dynasty at Cordova, that of the Almoravides, had revived Moslem enthusiasm and consolidated afresh the Moslem power in Spain. At the great battle of Zalaca in 1086, the forces of Alfonso were routed, and the Moors reconquered the whole of the peninsula up to the Ebro in the centre and the east, and up to the Mondego River on the Portuguese coast. Fearing that he would lose the outlying countships of Gallicia, Alfonso summoned the chivalry of Christian Europe to his aid. Among the knights who joined his army were Count Raymond of Toulouse and Count Henry of Burgundy. In 1095 Alfonso gave his legitimate daughter Urraca and the kingdom of Gallicia to Count Raymond, and to Henry of Burgundy his illegitimate daughter Theresa and the countships of Oporto and Coimbra, with the title of Count of Portugal. It is common to say that at this date the history of Portugal becomes distinct from that of the rest of the peninsula. As a matter of fact, however, Henry of Burgundy remained all his life a feudatory of Gallicia, and it was his son, Affonso Henriques, who in 1140 obtained for the first time a formal recognition of the independence of Portugal. To dissipate the common error that the Spaniards and the Portuguese belonged to distinct races, it is sufficient to keep in view the fact that the history of Portugal does not begin until a comparatively recent date, and that it would never have begun at all but for the determination of two or three able and ambitious princes to become independent sovereigns. The story of Portugal refutes the notion of Buckle that the influence of individuals on the destiny of nations is a negligible element.

II.

The three founders of Portugal were Count Henry of Burgundy, his wife Theresa, and his son Affonso Henriques, all of them marked individualities and typical figures of their epoch. Count Henry was a model crusader, in whom one virtue was supposed to compensate for a score of vices, and whose love of adventure was stimulated quite as much by self-seeking as by the spirit of self-sacrifice. He had crossed the Pyrenees with the double purpose of warring against the Moslem and of carving for himself a principality out of his father-in-law's dominions. Having accomplished the latter purpose and finding it impossible to fight any longer in his own country against the unbelievers, the land for miles on each bank of the Tagus having been laid utterly waste, he went in 1103 to Palestine, on what is known as the second crusade. His countship was left under the government of his wife Theresa, who, luckily for his subjects, was a singularly able woman. Beautiful and accomplished, the idol of poets and musicians, accustomed to gratify her passions but capable of feeling and inspiring the deepest devotion, she prepared herself during her husband's absence for the longer regency of her widowhood, and aimed from the outset to make the Portuguese nobles regard themselves not as Gallicians but as Portuguese, and to encourage the burghers of her towns in ideas of municipal independence which, for their ultimate sanction, would require the independence of the nation. It is noteworthy that on the return of Count Henry the citizens of Coimbra refused to admit him within their gates until he had confirmed the privileges granted to them by Donna Theresa. The last years of Count Henry's life were wasted in the internecine wars between Queen Urraca, to whom Alfonso VI. had left all of his possessions, and the disappointed claimants. Henceforth, up to 1140, the countship of Portugal was at least nominally held in vassalage to Queen Urraca and to her son Alfonso VII., who were rulers of Gallicia as well as of Leon and of Castile.

It was during the long regency of the Countess Theresa that the Portuguese began to cease to call themselves Gallicians. In both Roman and Gothic times the province of Gallicia had extended from the Bay of Biscay to the Tagus, and no distinction had been made between the Gallicians of the north and south. In the effort to create such a distinction, Donna Theresa was warmly seconded, not only by the burghers of the towns, but also by the clergy; she encountered opposition, however, among the nobles, most of whom owned great estates in both Gallicia and Portugal, and were, therefore, naturally averse to a separation which would make them feudatories to two different lords, and often oblige them, in case of disputes between their suzerains, to sacrifice one of their properties. On the other hand, the Portuguese Bishops, being suffragans of the reconstructed Archbishop of Braga, owed no obedience to any Gallician prelate; indeed, they were especially hostile to the wealthiest of them, the powerful Bishop of the great pilgrim city of Santiago da Campostella. It was the policy of the Archbishop of Braga to promote the independence of Portugal, for it was better for him to be the head of the Church in an important countship than merely one of the Archbishops in the kingdom of Gallicia.

It was characteristic of Donna Theresa, as of many another great lady of her time, that the susceptibility which assured to her the devotion of the nobles proved in the end a snare to her own feet. Leading her forces into Gallicia, in 1116, to coöperate in a rising against Queen Urraca, she met for the first time Don Fernando Peres de Trava, with whom she fell passionately in love, and whose history was for the future to be linked with hers. Some years, indeed, she managed to pass in peace and quiet in the constant company of her lover, whom she made Governor of Coimbra and Oporto and Count of Trastamare; while to his elder brother she gave the hand of her second daughter by Count Henry and the Governorship of Viseu. The careers of Donna Theresa and of her half sister, Queen Urraca, were curiously similar. Queen Urraca showered favors on her lover, Don Pedro de Lara, until her young son, Alfonso Raimundes (afterward Alfonso VII.), revolted against her; while Donna Theresa, with equal blindness, devoted herself to Don Fernando Peres, and thus aroused the hatred of her son, Affonso Henriques, who, in 1128, raised an army with the declared intention of expelling his mother and her lover from the country. In a battle which ensued Donna Theresa was defeated and taken prisoner, and soon afterward was banished. After her expulsion she wandered about with Don Fernando in the mountains of Gallicia until her death, in poverty, in 1130. Her body was brought back to Portugal and buried beside that of Count Henry, her husband, in the cathedral of Braga, where both are reverenced by modern Portuguese as the founders of their country's independence. It is true that she had seldom ventured to call herself a queen, but she never took any title smaller than that of infanta, and she laid the foundation for the extension of Portugal toward the south by encouraging the settlement of the semi-religious, semi-military orders on the frontier. Her attachment to Fernando Peres may have made her deviate from the path she should have followed as Regent of Portugal, but it scarcely makes her a less interesting character in the eyes of posterity. To political instincts and capabilities for governing, which rank her among the most remarkable women of the middle ages; to a manly courage which inspired her to lead her soldiers in person to the fight, and enabled her to withstand a Moorish siege, she joined the most feminine of qualities, that of absolute devotion to the man she loved. If she loved greatly, she was greatly punished, and her death may be held to atone for the favor she bestowed upon the possessor of her heart.

III.

Affonso Henriques, the only son of Count Henry and Donna Theresa, who began to reign in 1128 at the age of seventeen, is one of the heroes of mediæval chronicles. He united his father's restless and chivalrous valor with his mother's political ability. When he succeeded to the government of Portugal it was still generally regarded, in spite of Theresa's self-assertion, as a county of Gallicia, but after nearly sixty years of incessant fighting he bequeathed to his son a powerful little kingdom, whose independence was unquestioned, and whose fame had been spread abroad by the victories of its first monarch over the Moors. It required, however, four wars and twelve years to extort from Alfonso VII. (who was not only King of Castile, Leon, and Gallicia, but in 1135 was elected Emperor) a recognition of Portuguese independence. The forces of Affonso Henriques were usually inadequate to cope with those of his suzerain, and by the peace of Tui, signed in 1137, he agreed to submit himself as a vassal to his cousin. This promise, however, he never kept, and, war again breaking out, it was agreed, after a hard-fought but inconclusive battle, to refer the question of Portuguese autonomy to a chivalrous contest. It is a curious and characteristic fact that the severance of Portugal from Gallicia was ultimately accomplished by victory in a tournament and not in war. Up to 1136 Affonso Henriques had styled himself Infante, in imitation of the title borne by his mother. During the four following years he styled himself Principe, and it was not until 1140, upon the triumph of the Portuguese knights in the lists, that he first took the title of King. A consent no less important than that of the Emperor—that, namely, of the Pope—had to be obtained before the Portuguese prince could obtain admission into the circle of Christian sovereigns. The acquiescence of Innocent II. in his assumption of royalty was secured by a letter in which Affonso Henriques declared himself a vassal of the Pope and covenanted to pay four ounces of gold a year.

The wars whose purpose was political dismemberment were now over, and wars for extension and consolidation took their place. The next twenty-five years of the reign of Affonso Henriques were spent in one long crusade against the Moors. But it is a great mistake to suppose that it was by his successes against the Moslem that the Portuguese crusader won his crown. The misconception is an old one, the early Portuguese chronicles always ascribing their country's independence to the triumphs of their first King over the infidels. It was not until there arose in Portugal a modern school of historians, who examined documents and did not take the statements of predecessors upon trust, that it was made clear that Affonso Henriques gained his crown not by exploits against the Moors, but by a long struggle against his Christian cousin. The fact throws an entirely new light upon the early history of Portugal, and on this account may be held to rank among the most interesting discoveries made by the modern scientific school of historical inquirers. There is, to be sure, no doubt that the achievements of the Portuguese crusader in the cause of religion made the Pope at all events more ready to comply with his desire to be admitted among the sovereigns of Europe. As a proof of his admission it may be mentioned t at in 1146 Affonso Henriques married Matilda, daughter of Amadeus II., Count of Savoy and Piedmont.

The conquest of the Moorish district, known as the Belatha, was of so much importance to Portugal that it deserves to be traced in some detail. The name Belatha was given to the peninsula lying between the Atlantic and the Tagus, which, it will be remembered, pursues a southwesterly and almost southerly course as it approaches the sea. In this peninsula lay the great and beautiful city of Santarem, which commanded the upper reaches of the Tagus, and was but one day's march from the Portuguese capital at Coimbra. This city had long been a thorn in the side of Portugal, but on March 2, 1147, Affonso Henriques managed to surprise it before the governor had time to provision it, and a fortnight later carried it by storm. This success, however, was eclipsed in the same year by a more memorable event, the capture of Lisbon, which had been an ancient Greek colony, and which from its position at the mouth of the Tagus is the natural metropolis of the west coast of the Iberian peninsula. Its capture by the Moors, in 714, had marked one of the decisive stages of their advance, and it remained the chief city of their province of Belatha for more than 400 years. It had, to be sure, been three times captured by the Christians, namely, in 792 by Alfonso the Chaste of Castile; in 851 by Ordonho I. of Leon, and in 1093 by Alfonso VI., the father-in-law of Count Henry of Burgundy. But the Christians kept it only twenty years after the first recapture, and only a few months on the second and third occasions. Now it was to pass permanently into the hands of the Portuguese sovereign. It is very doubtful, however, whether Affonso Henriques would have been able to take the city but for the assistance rendered by a great fleet of crusaders who had put in at Oporto on their way to Palestine, and most of whom, curiously enough, were Englishmen. Even with their aid Affonso Henriques was unable to blockade the great circumference of the town, but having contrived to make a breach at a particular spot, he succeeded in forcing an entrance on Oct. 24, 1147. The capture of Lisbon was followed by the surrender of eight considerable cities, and in the course of three years the first King of Portugal found himself master of the whole of the southern Beira and of northern Estremadura. He had not men enough, however, to occupy and settle his new possessions, and had to wait ten years before his next step in advance. It was not until 1158 that, after being twice repulsed, he managed to take the opulent city of Alcacer do Sal, and reached the height of his prosperity. Three years later the Almohade Caliph, Abd-el-Mumin, invaded Spain, and inflicted upon Affonso Henriques his first disastrous defeat, and drove him back to Lisbon and Santarem. Afterward the Portuguese ruler gradually recovered much of the ground that he had lost, but having undertaken to make conquests east of the line fixed by treaty as the eastern boundary of Portuguese extension, he was severely beaten by King Ferdinand of Leon and Gallicia, and forced to surrender the towns which he had taken on the left bank of the Guadiana, as well as some cities on the Gallician frontier. This defeat broke the spirit of the old crusader and he was never again able to mount a horse, though he lived some fifteen years longer, dying at Coimbra in 1185. What gives his reign unusual interest is the fact that it witnessed the growth of a small and feeble country into a compact and powerful kingdom which has been perpetuated to modern times. It was the greatness of this one man that made Portugal an independent country and that assured to it a distinct development, while all the other kingdoms of the peninsula were destined to coalesce. On the face of things there was far more reason at the beginning of the twelfth century to expect that Navarre and Aragon would retain their national individuality than that such independence would be evolved in the outlying counties of Gallicia. In Navarre the Basques had possessed from time immemorial a language entirely different from that spoken in the rest of the peninsula, and the natives of Catalonia, the most valuable of the King of Aragon's dominions, spoke not Castilian, but a Provençal dialect. Nevertheless, the Basque provinces and Catalonia have long since been incorporated in the Spanish monarchy; but in the case of Portugal, although it was to suffer the same fate for about sixty years under Philip II. and Philip III., a lasting fusion proved to be impracticable.

IV.

The reign of Sancho I., the son of Affonso Henriques, did not witness the attainment by Portugal of its present European limits, for it happened to be contemporary with the invasion of Spain by the great Almohade Caliph Yakub, who inflicted a terrible defeat upon Alfonso VIII. of Castile at the battle of Alarcos in 1195, but who spared the Portuguese upon their agreement to make the Tagus their southern boundary. The truth is that the Portuguese were not yet numerous enough to take possession of the provinces which form the southern part of the modern kingdom. The great service which Sancho rendered to his country was his revival of agriculture in the northern provinces, which resulted in a large increase of the population in the next generation. Though temporarily cut off from southward extension, both by treaty and by lack of colonists, the little kingdom of Portugal had already acquired much prestige in Europe, as is shown by the great marriages made by King Sancho's children. In these days Portuguese ladies are not distinguished for good looks, but it seems that the beauty of King Sancho's daughters was so famous that their hands were sought by distant kings. King John of England sent an embassy in 1199 to ask in vain for the hand of an infanta, and Sancho's youngest daughter, Donna Berengaria, married King Waldemar of Denmark in 1213. Another sister, Donna Theresa, was united to Alfonso IX. of Leon, and still another, Donna Mafalda, to Henry I. of Castile, although both of these marriages were subsequently broken by the Pope on the ground that they had infringed the laws of consanguinity. We may add that the eldest of Sancho's sons, Dom Alfonso, married Donna Urraca, daughter of Alfonso VIII. of Castile and Eleanor of England, and the sister of Blanche, who, as Queen of France, became the mother of Louis IX. Another son, Dom Ferdinand, married Joanna, Lady of Flanders, and fought at the head of the Flemish troops at the battle of Bouvines.

The reign of Sancho's eldest son, Affonso II., surnamed "the Fat," is of importance rather in the constitutional than in the political history of Portugal. On his father's death, in 1211, the young King, acting apparently under the advice of the great statesman Juliao, summoned a Cortes or Parliament, consisting of the Bishops, "fidalgoes," and "ricos homens" of the realm. This was the first regular assembly of notables ever held in Portugal, the Cortes of Lamego, generally asserted to have met in 1143, being apocryphal. In the presence of this Cortes Affonso II. gave his solemn adhesion to a compact which his father had made with the Church, and then propounded a law of mortmain, drawn up by Juliao, whereby religious foundations could receive no more legacies of land because they could not perform military service. The young King also rendered a service to the unity of Portugal by refusing to hand over to his brothers the large estates which King Sancho had bequeathed to them by his will.

It was in the reign of Sancho II. and of his brother, Affonso III. (both sons of Affonso II.), that the extension of Portuguese territory to its present limits was effected by the final occupation of the province known as the Alemtejo and the conquest of the Algarves, at the extreme southwestern angle of the peninsula. The last-named acquisition gave umbrage to Alfonso X. of Castile, and for a time Affonso III. consented to hold the Algarves in usufruct only. In 1263, however, Alfonso X. made over to him the full sovereignty of the conquered district, and he thereupon assumed the title, preserved until this day, of King of Portugal and the Algarves.

With the death of Affonso III. (1279) the period of war and of territorial extension within the peninsula came to a close, and the period of civilization was to dawn. Nationally and constitutionally, Portugal was now an established kingdom. It remained for it to become thoroughly homogeneous and relatively civilized before the heroic period of exploration and Asiatic conquest could begin.

V.

The next Portuguese sovereign, Diniz, earned the significant nickname of "Rê Lavrador," the laborer king. He was a poet and encourager of literature, a statesman and great administrator; a far-seeing man, who by fostering commerce prepared for the transmarine expansion of Portuguese energies. But above all, and hence his nickname, he recognized the need of agriculture and the arts of peace. It was during his reign that the Order of Knights Templars was suppressed by Pope Clement V., and the course which Diniz pursued demonstrated his political sagacity. Refusing to forget the services which the military orders had rendered to Portugal, he determined to evade the Papal injunction, and accordingly founded the Order of Christ, which he invested with all the property of the Templars. Thus, while ostensibly obeying the Pope, he avoided a serious disturbance at home. It is impossible in a few lines to indicate the remarkable progress effected during the long reign of Don Diniz, which covered nearly fifty years. He founded agricultural schools and homes for farmers' orphans, established model farms, endeavored by honoring agricultural pursuits to raise them in the consideration of the nobility, and strove to wean his people from the notion that war was the only occupation fit for a freeman. He settled cultivators in the barren southern province of the Alemtejo, paid special attention to the rearing of vines in the north, and planted the great pine forest of Leiria for the purpose of reclaiming the sandy regions in the neighborhood. He was also a great builder, constructing the towns of Salvaterra and Villa Real, and doing much to improve the three royal cities of Lisbon, Santarem, and Coimbra. More stringent laws of mortmain were directed against the Church, and sweeping reforms were introduced in the administration of justice. Under a succession of learned chancellors a system of law was evolved, which while it did not openly abolish the feudal courts gradually superseded them. His encouragement of commerce is attested by his commercial treaty with England and by his establishment of a royal navy commanded by a new official, entitled the "Almirante Mor," or Lord High Admiral. From this and many another point of view Dom Diniz did for Portugal what his still greater contemporary, Edward I., was doing for England. It was also Diniz who in 1300 founded the first Portuguese university at Lisbon, which, after many changes of locality, obtained a permanent home in Coimbra and became the centre of literary influence in Portugal. The King was himself a poet of taste and skill, after the fashion of the troubadours, and to him and his companion versifiers must be attributed the moulding of the Portuguese dialect into a beautiful and flexible literary language. In the end he threw off the trammels of Provençal forms, and perceiving the beauty of his people's lyrics, wrote some quaint and graceful "pastorellas" in the vernacular. To this day the influence of Dom Diniz is recognized as pervading the whole of Portuguese poetry. Personally dissolute, like most of the troubadours, he was the hero of many stories that are by no means edifying. His example was followed by his sister, Donna Branca, who, although an abbess, fell in love with a carpenter, and bore him a son, who became Master of the Order of Calatrava. The King's favors to two of his own illegitimate children involved him, toward the end of his reign, in bitter disputes with his only legitimate son, Affonso IV. The latter, on ascending the throne, hastened to confiscate the lands of his half brothers and beheaded one of them, but, having performed this act of vengeance, settled down as a worthy successor of his father. During this reign the business relations between the Portuguese and English sovereigns became very close, and the wine of Oporto began to be freely exchanged for the long cloth of England. In 1353 a supplement to the previous commercial treaty guaranteed reciprocal privileges to Portuguese and English merchants in their respective countries.

VI.

There is an abundance of romance in the history of Portugal, but the story of Donna Ines de Castro is particularly worth recalling, since it was to be celebrated by Camoens in an immortal passage and to become a current theme for the playwrights of the world. It seems that Dom Pedro, the only son of Affonso IV., had for political reasons married in 1336, being then only 16 years old, the daughter of the Duke of Penafiel. In her suite, as lady in waiting, came the Donna Ines de Castro, daughter of Pedro Fernandez de Castro, the hero of the battle of the Salado against the Moors. Dom Pedro fell in love with the beautiful Castilian lady, and though during his wife's lifetime he always treated the latter with the utmost consideration, and was the father by her of Dom Ferdinand, afterward King of Portugal, it was well known at the court that his affections were centred upon Donna Ines. So long as their relations were irregular but little attention was paid to them, but after the death of his wife it was perceived that Dom Pedro's attachment to the Donna Ines was something very different from an ordinary caprice, and had become an absorbing passion. For love of her he refused to marry any of the foreign princesses proposed to him by his father, and it is probable that he went through a form of marriage with her after his first wife's death. However that may be, King Affonso IV. determined to put an end to his son's infatuation by killing the object of it, and by his orders Donna Ines was murdered by three courtiers in the streets of Coimbra. Dom Pedro was absent on his estates in the south when he heard of the murder of his beloved. He at once collected his vassals and prepared to attack his father, but his mother interposed and a compromise was made by which father and son agreed to see each other no more, an agreement which was kept until the death of Affonso in 1357. The very first act of Dom Pedro on ascending the throne was to hunt out and punish the murderers of Ines de Castro. Two were caught and slowly tortured to death in front of the royal palace at Coimbra, before the eyes of their victim's lover. Four years later, to show his undying affection for Donna Ines, to confirm the story of his marriage, and to legitimize his children, Dom Pedro had her body disinterred and conveyed to the convent of Alcobaça, where it was solemnly crowned and then reburied. The spirit of implacable justice which marked the first act of his reign continued to show itself in all matters of administration. Indeed, the rigor with which the new King treated all culprits, no matter what their station, won for him the title of "Pedro the Severe." His impartial severity was pleasing to the people, and many of the stories told in the Arabian Nights of the incognito visits made to the law courts by the Caliph Haroun-al-Raschid, are also recounted of Dom Pedro.

The life and reign of Dom Pedro's son, Ferdinand the Handsome, were also marked by a romantic amour, which, although less tragic than the story of Ines de Castro, had much greater political importance. A marriage had been arranged between Dom Ferdinand and Leonora, daughter of Henry II. of Castile. Before it could be carried out, however, King Ferdinand fell passionately in love with Donna Leonor Telles, wife of the Lord of Pombeiro. The object of the King's passion was a sort of Portuguese Lucrezia Borgia, of whom horrible stories were told, which recent research has shown to have been only too well founded. She herself made no attempt to repulse the King's advances, and conceived an implacable hatred of her unmarried sister for her interposition. In his infatuation for Donna Leonor the King refused to marry the Castilian princess, a refusal which exasperated the people of Lisbon and caused an insurrection in that city. The principal rioters, however, were beheaded, and immediately afterward the King married the Donna Leonor, although her first husband was still alive. With the exception of one of the King's half brothers, all the Portuguese nobles acquiesced in this bigamous marriage, and recognized Donna Leonor as Queen. The latter soon became supreme; her weak and vacillating husband was a slave, and the tyranny which she exercised grew odious. Especially ghastly was her revenge upon her younger sister, Donna Maria Telles, whom she had never forgiven for opposing her marriage with the King. Maria, who was as beautiful as her sister and far more amiable, had inspired a real passion in Dom John, the King's half brother, and was married to him in 1376. They were perfectly happy until the Queen was so successful in instilling the passion of jealousy into the young husband that he murdered his wife with his own hand, while she was vainly protesting her innocence. When the deed was done the Queen came into her dead sister's presence and laughingly informed the wife slayer that the accusations were untrue. It was not, however, as might at first sight be supposed, this Dom John, but a namesake of his (also a half brother of the King's by another of his father's mistresses), known as Dom John the Bastard, Master of the Order of Aviz, who, on the death of Ferdinand in 1383, headed an insurrection and deposed Donna Leonor from the regency. The latter was supported by her son-in-law, John of Castile, but, having tried to poison him, she was sent to a convent, where she ended her days. In the ensuing war between Castile and Portugal the independence of the latter country was at stake, and it was felt to be most unfortunate that the candidate of the patriot party should be illegitimate. The following measures were taken to legalize his position. A great Cortes was summoned to meet at Coimbra, and in it, on April 6, 1385, the throne of Portugal was declared to be elective. Then the Chancellor produced a papal bull, declaring the children of Dom Pedro by Ines de Castro to be illegitimate, and thus placing them on a footing no better than that of Pedro's other bastard children. Thereupon the Cortes unanimously elected Dom John the Bastard (son of Pedro by Theresa Lourenço) to be King of Portugal. Accordingly, the Master of the Knights of Aviz assumed the title of Dom John I., and is known in Portuguese history as John the Great. He made good his claim to the crown in the decisive battle of Aljubarrota, where, with the assistance of five hundred English archers, he overwhelmingly defeated the forces of Castile. A little later the treaty of Windsor united the kingdoms of Portugal and England in the firmest bonds of friendship, and in July, 1386, John of Gaunt reached Corunna with 2,000 English lances and 3,000 archers. In the following year the peace of the peninsula was practically settled by two marriages, Philippa, a daughter of John of Gaunt, being wedded to John I., and another daughter, Catherine, to Henry, Prince of the Asturias and heir to the throne of Castile. It was not, however, until 1411 that the title of John to be King of Portugal was formally recognized by the Castilian monarchy.

VII.

It was the House of Aviz, the illegitimate branch of her ancient dynasty, that was to raise Portugal to a height of grandeur, which, when we keep in view the size and population of the country, is without a parallel in history. During the reigns of John I. and of his two successors, which collectively occupied about a century, Portugal was learning to become the most conspicuous nation in Europe. It was an age of rapid and luxuriant growth, abounding in statesmen, mariners, and chroniclers, who were to be followed in the brief but immortal epoch of Portuguese greatness by such men as Albuquerque, Vasco da Gama, and Camoens. From the outset of the reign of John I. a new spirit appeared alike among the kings, the merchants, and the soldiers, a spirit which was to culminate in the glory of the heroic period. One grave mistake, however, was committed by the new sovereign. He overestimated the assistance of his nobles and, apparently dreading their secession to the Castilian party, over-rewarded them by granting them nearly the whole of the old royal estates of the kings of Portugal. Thus he seriously weakened the royal power, though the blunder did not impoverish the treasury, which was filled mainly by the proceeds of the customs duties continually increased by a wise commercial policy. The citizens of Lisbon regarded him much as the citizens of London did Edward IV. a century later: they were at all times ready to obey him and to pay him a tithe of their wealth. In every respect, except his lavish creation of great feudal estates, his administration was exceptionally good. His cities waxed opulent, his navy increased, his sailors became famous for their daring, and in some minor particulars judicial reforms were carried out. It was during this reign that the Portuguese determined to carry the war against the Moors into Africa. In the first of a long series of expeditions they stormed and occupied the city of Ceuta, which had long been a rendezvous of corsairs. The third son of John I., Dom Henry, known in the history of the world as Prince Henry the Navigator, established himself in 1418 in the port of Sagre at Cape St. Vincent, in order to devote himself to the discovery of a continuous route by sea to India which should bring the trade of Asia and its provinces to the port of Lisbon. Before we sum up the result of his experiments, to which Mr. Stephens properly devotes a separate chapter, we should pause a moment to trace through this important fifteenth century the development of the Portuguese vernacular into a literary language. Mention has already been made of the Portuguese troubadours, and we may add that the battle of the Salado (1340) was celebrated in a Portuguese epic which foreshadowed the "Lusiads" of Camoens.

While, however, the early poetry of Portugal differed but little from that of Galicia, its prose was evolved in an independent direction. The first Portuguese work of length and importance was the famous romance of "Amadis de Gaul," which was followed by native versions of the Arthurian legends brought into Portugal in consequence of the close relations with England. Other noteworthy specimens of early Portuguese prose are the "Book of the Chase," "The Faithful Counsellor," and "Instructions in Horsemanship." It was also under the patronage of John I. and his sons that the first great Portuguese chronicler, Fernand Lopes, called the Froissart of Portugal, wrote an account of the reigns of Pedro the Severe and Ferdinand the Handsome, and Matthew de Pisano composed a history of the famous expedition against Ceuta. These men were the forerunners of the still more distinguished chroniclers, Azurara, Rui de Pina, and Duarte Galvao. Apropos of the just mentioned history of the Ceuta expedition, we may recall the very different result of the attack upon Tangier in 1437. Ceuta was on the seacoast, and the Portuguese soldiers could retreat to their fleet in case of need, but Tangier was three miles from the sea. Accordingly, when the Portuguese army had landed, the Moors cut off its communication with the fleet, and reduced it to capitulation. This disaster so preyed upon the mind of King Edward, who had succeeded his father, John I., in 1433, that he died in the course of a few months, more happy, however, than his brother, Dom Ferdinand, who, having consented at Tangier to remain as a hostage, suffered a long and cruel imprisonment at Fez, where he died in 1443. He could at any time have obtained release from captivity had his countrymen consented to surrender Ceuta, but he would not submit to the alternative. The successor of King Edward, his son Affonso V., acquired the title of "the African" from his numerous expeditions against the Moors on the further side of the Straits of Gibraltar. In the first of these adventures (1458), he took Alcazar es Seghir, and in the third (1471), he took Anafe, Tangier, and Arzila. We may note here that Affonso V. took part fruitlessly in the Castilian war of succession, which ended in the coronation of the Infanta Isabella, who had married Ferdinand of Aragon. Affonso's claim was based upon the fact that he had married in 1475 his own niece, Joanna, elder daughter of Henry IV. of Castile, then a girl of only 13. The Portuguese were so utterly defeated by the Castilians at Toro in 1476, that Affonso was forced to renounce his claim and to sign a treaty by which he agreed to send his newly married bride to a convent. Affonso V., although he did much harm to his country by his restlessness and ill-directed schemes, was a man of literary tastes, and wrote much and ably upon various subjects. He was a liberal patron of men of letters, and collected a great library at Evora. Perhaps the truest indication of the greatness which seems to have existed in his character, is to be found in his answer to the chronicler who asked how he should write the annals of his reign. The King said simply, "Tell the truth."

VIII.

It is around the achievements of Prince Henry the Navigator that the discoveries of Portuguese explorers may best be grouped, for he was their guiding spirit, and the impulse that he gave lived after him. It is interesting to remember that he was half an Englishman, being the third son of John the Great by Philippa of Lancaster. We have seen that as early as 1418 he took up his abode at Sagre, and devoted himself to maritime investigations. Too wise to neglect scientific knowledge, he availed himself of his enormous wealth to call to his aid mathematicians and astronomers from all parts of Europe. He employed them in making charts and in improving the working of the compass. With an eye also to the practical side of his design he collected all the experienced captains and mariners whom he could reach, and sent them forth year after year on voyages of discovery along the western coast of Africa. He never went on any of these expeditions in person, but he was acknowledged alike by sailors and by men of science to be their presiding genius. The idea in his mind was that it was possible to sail around Africa to India, and thus to trade directly with the East; and it is melancholy to think that after more than forty years' endeavor he should have died without beholding the confirmation of his right belief. There is no doubt that Prince Henry was familiar with the Periplus of Hanno, in the course of which the Carthaginian navigator is generally believed to have attained a point upon the coast of Guinea. Nor is there any question that the Portuguese scholar had also become acquainted with the record of that strange voyage accomplished in the reign of Pharaoh Necho by Phœnician seamen, who, setting sail from a port of the Red Sea appeared three years afterward at the mouth of the Nile, and amazed every one by saying that, although they always kept the land upon their right hand, yet during the first half of their voyage the sun always rose upon their left hand, and during the second half upon their right. This statement, which their contemporaries accepted as proof of their mendacity, may have been recognized by Prince Henry as evidence of the truth of their story.

The first fruits of Prince Henry's exploring ardor were the discovery of the island of Porto Santo in 1419, and of the more important island of Madeira in 1420. It is well known that many authors hold these great finds to be only rediscoveries, insisting that Madeira was, in fact, lighted on by a Portuguese in 1351, and again by an Englishman in 1370. However that may be, the fact remains that the first continued occupation of the island and its first entry upon any chart were due to the enterprise of Prince Henry. The discovery of these islands was merely incidental to Prince Henry's plan, the purpose of his expeditions being to double Cape Bojador, which long remained an insurmountable obstacle to Portuguese mariners. Among other important discoveries made in unsuccessful attempts to round this cape, were those of the Canary Islands and the Azores. The former group was surrendered to Spain on the score of a disputable claim to prior discovery, but the Portuguese made good their right to the Azores, which they occupied in 1432. At last, two years later, Gil Eannes doubled Cape Bojador, and in 1436 Affonso Baldaya reached the Rio D'Ouro. In 1441 Antao Gonçalves went a hundred leagues further, and in the same year Nuno Triestao, the most daring of Prince Henry's captains, reached the cape which closes on the south the shoulder formed by northwest Africa, and named it the Cabo Branco, or White Cape.

Merely noting in passing that with the last-mentioned voyage may be said to have begun the African slave trade, which in the end was to have serious consequences for Portugal, we continue the record of exploration. In 1445 Nuno Tristao sailed as far as the Senegal River, and in the same year Diniz Diaz, his boldest rival, discovered Guinea. Portuguese navigators had now learned how to find their way around the inhospitable shoulder of Northwest Africa. Cape Bojador and Cabo Branco had no longer any terrors for them, and their hopes of reaching India were excited by finding that the coast trended abruptly to the east. We may add that in 1446 Diniz Diaz reached Cape Verde, which he called by that name from its green appearance.

The next decade is marked in the annals of maritime explorations by the discoveries of Luigi Cadamosto, a Venetian who had entered the service of Dom Henry. It is now generally believed that during his famous voyage in 1455 and 1456 he managed to get past the Senegal and discover the Gambia, and that the Cape Verde Islands were made known in 1460 by Diogo Gomes. In the year last mentioned Prince Henry died. He had not attained a direct sea route to India, but he had opened the way to it, and it was quite certain that, if it existed, the captains trained by him would find the route in time. As a matter of fact, in 1471 Portuguese seamen discovered the islands of St. Thomas, Fernando Bom, and Anno Bom, crossed the equator, and explored as far as Cape St. Catherine. In 1484 Diogo Cam discovered the Congo, and two years later Bartholomew Diaz reached Algoa Bay and doubled the Cape, which he called "Stormy" from the winds he met there, but which his sovereign, with a forecast of the future, preferred to call the Cape of Good Hope. Eleven years more were to elapse before Vasco da Gama made his way from Lisbon to Calicut and transferred the trade of the East from the Venetians to the Portuguese.

In the sixteenth century culminates the romantic history of Portugal; it produces great captains and great writers; all the traffic with Persia, India, China, Japan, and the Spice Islands falls into its hands and it becomes incomparably the richest nation in Europe. Yet the same sixteenth century was to see the Portuguese power collapse, and the independence won by Affonso Henriques and upheld for upward of four hundred years vanish away. It was to see Portugal, whose name for two generations had filled the world, decline abruptly from its high estate and dwindle into a mere province of Spain. On the latter chapters of its history we need not dwell, for they are tolerably familiar to all educated readers, and trustworthy accounts of them already exist in English. But as regards the origin and evolution of the Portuguese nationality, the book now published by the Putnams is the first in our language to present authentic information. M. W. H.

A PLAYGROUND IN A DESERT.

An Interesting Spot Called Little Coney Island in Fiftieth Street.

In some respects the lower end of West Fiftieth street is about as dreary a spot as can be found in the city. In one respect it is a most cheerful place. The gutters are full of great blocks of stone for buildings and for pavements. The street between is covered with white dust. The lots on each side are shut in with wooden fences that in their dilapidation are painful to look at. In the lots themselves are equally dilapidated sheds, while stacks and cords of building and paving stones and heaps of stone débris appear in every direction. The glare of the sun here on a hot day is something intolerable.

In the midst of this arid region, fit to be called a little Sahara, is a spot to make any man's heart glad. Two city lots have been enclosed with a paling that is not dilapidated. In one corner there a cool-looking pavilion, with a plenty of seats under it, in another corner a half dozen stout boards are balanced over a wooden horse so as to form the easiest kind of teeters. In the two remaining corners are a lot of swings, big, little, and safe.

When a SUN reporter passed there yesterday every seat was occupied, every teeter was vibrating, every swing was swinging, and more than a hundred little girls laughed and romped about in the cheeriest, happiest way imaginable. The girls were not dressed in purple and fine linen, and they did not look as it overfed, but they were having a lot of fun.

Some boys in the street who looked in silence at the girls within, were asked who the girls in the play yard were.

"Dey's from the soup school, boss," said one.

"Soup school? Where's that?"

"In Fifty-second street."

"Is it a charity school?"

"Yah. Dey calls de yard Little Coney Island."

A red-headed youth who guarded the gate said:

"It is a play yard established here by the Children's Aid Society. It is free to boys in the forenoon and to girls in the afternoon. Two ladies are here morning and afternoon to look after the children, and some of them are very swell. The yard is full about all the time."

NOTES ON SCIENCE AND INDUSTRY.

A new process for the reduction of refractory ores, described in the London papers, is declared to be the most simple and inexpensive yet contrived, and, being free from the complications involved in the usual methods, is of especial value in the treatment of gold ore. The ore, having been ground to powder, is transferred to a furnace, where it is subjected to a thorough roasting by hot air, with the result that a complete oxidation of the intractable sulphurets and arsenical ores takes place, the gold being freed by these artificial means. The next step is to pass the ore, now in the condition of a fine rouge-like product, to the amalgamators, where the powder is ground with water until the gold has passed to its natural amalgam, when it is drawn off, and is ready for retort distillation in the laboratory. A furnace suitable for this purpose may, it is stated, be erected for $1,000, while the expense of treating a ton of ore by this simple means need scarcely amount to $2. Thus, the ore from a certain mine, treated by the ordinary process, is said to have yielded but five dwts. of gold to the ton, while by this new process the result has proved to be, roughly, one ounce of gold and two ounces of silver per ton.

One of the most ingenious and at the same time practically useful among the automatic machines which have been introduced of late is a device which forms, fills, weighs, and seals packages in those establishments where large quantities of goods, such as fine-cut tobacco, soda, starch, &c., are constantly put up. The operation by which this result is accomplished, though decidedly novel, is not at all complex in any particular, the machine consisting merely of a series of forming blocks, receptacles, folders, gummers, and feeders, all working in mutual harmony, so that the packages are smoothly and continuously produced. The forming blocks successively size the paper, which instantly afterward is wrapped around them, folded and gummed at the end; the paper sacks are then plunged into receptacles filled with the commodity for which they are intended, finally folded on top and sealed.

The difficulty in making an effective strong joint between a tool and its handle has long been felt, and the disadvantages thus involved are well understood, not only in respect to looseness in the joint but to the positive lack of power. But the invention of the Mannesmann process for the production of tubes direct from metal blocks, would now appear to have rendered both possible and desirable the making of a tool combined with its handle: that is, by means of that process, tubes are produced having solid portions at one or more points of their lengths, and these tubular rods may be made in any convenient lengths, with solid portions at regular or irregular distances apart, so that by cutting through such solid portions the rod can, of course, be divided up to a corresponding number of blanks for tools. By cutting such bars through at convenient points, as the size or length will show to be best, each section will consist of a hollow part, which may be suitably shaped or bent to form the handle, and the solid part, which can be shaped into the tool head by forging or stamping. Various tools are so formed, and it is obvious that they possess a greater degree of strength and durability than tools of which the handles form a separate piece.

The engraving of glass by the opake method has been lately brought to a high degree of perfection by a Vienna artizan and chemist. Hydrofluoric acid is neutralized with a few crystals of soda, and the fluoride of soda thus obtained is diluted with five or six times its volume of water. A good proportion is found to be obtained with 240 cubic centimetres of hydrofluoric acid, 600 grains of powdered crystals of soda, and 100 cubic centimetres of water. The bare surface of the glass is submitted for a few minutes to the action of the ordinary solution employed for engraving—one-tenth of hydrofluoric acid—and then the plate, after being washed, is dried with a sponge. After this the preceding solution is poured upon it for opake engraving, and allowed to remain for an hour; the liquid is then poured off and the surface washed with water, the latter being left upon the glass until a thin pellicle of silicate forms upon the surface. By varying the duration of the action of the solution, various degrees of opacity may be obtained. If the latter is too great, it may be diminished by a new solution of hydrofluoric acid for engraving.

In a new construction of rotary engine it is claimed that the motive power is utilized to the greatest possible advantage. In this arrangement the frame supports a cylinder made in the shape of a ring having an annular recess, closed at one side by a ring-shaped head, while the outer edge of a piston extends centrally into this recess on the inner side of the cylinder, the piston being made in the shape of a wheel on a shaft turning in suitable bearings of the frame. The wheel-shaped piston has recesses or buckets in its periphery against which the steam is tangentially directed through angularly arranged inlet ports in the cylinder. The outer ends of these ports are connected by short branch pipes with a pipe extending almost entirely around the cylinder, this latter pipe being also connected at one end with the steam supply source and closed at its other end. The series of inlet ports follow each other at equal distances around the cylinder, and following them is an exhaust port connecting with a pipe leading to the outside. By this arrangement all but one of the buckets in the periphery of the piston are kept constantly filled with live steam, each discharging as it reaches the exhaust port. To insure the steam-tight rotation of the piston in the annular recess of the cylinder, packing rings are provided, to be pressed against the sides of the cylinder by set screws at suitable distances apart in each outer side of the cylinder.

The use of sulphide of carbon is well-nigh indispensable for a great variety of industrial purposes, an objection to its more extensive employment being the very disagreeable odor which heretofore has been considered inseparable from its use. Recently, however, a method has been devised for removing this odor, and the treatment is said to be successful. The plan consists in first shaking up the substance with one per cent. of corrosive sublimate, this operation being repeated several times, after longer or shorter intervals, and by means of which treatment certain sulphurets are produced, and which cause the salt of the mercury to turn black. After this has been accomplished, the liquid is to be distilled, and that which passes over will be found to have a much less disagreeable smell. If under these circumstances one-third of its bulk of oil of almonds be added, the result is very satisfactory, the sulphide emitting an odor that is quite agreeable, being somewhat like that of ether.

As the result of a series of most careful researches into the effect produced upon iron of the various preservative substances which have been brought forward by inventors and metallurgists, Prof. Lewes publishes it as his conclusion that protectives of the class of tar and its derivatives, such as pitch, black varnishes, asphalt, and mineral waxes, are among the best. The small quantities of acids and ammoniac salts, which so frequently occur in tar and tar products, must, however, be wholly removed; and if, in addition to this, the class of substances mentioned are applied hot to warm iron, an enamel is found on the surface of the metal, which is not like other coatings—microscopically porous, and, therefore, in the nature of things, pervious to water. Spirit or naphtha varnishes are condemned by Prof. Lewes; varnishes to which a body has been given by some kind of a pigment, generally a metallic oxide, he considers preferable to the latter class, provided the solvent employed is of a character not too rapid in its evaporation—with the additional precaution that only such substances be selected as do not of themselves act injuriously upon iron, or upon the gums or resins that are to bind them together.

At one of the most extensive Eastern manufacturing establishments there has for some time been in use a thin sheet iron as a mounting for blue prints, an arrangement which, it is represented, has proved in a high degree satisfactory. It is cold rolled, has a smooth surface, and is cut into two different sizes for blue prints used in the shop, and is represented as possessing the advantages of being practically indestructible as well as quite light and inexpensive. For this purpose the iron is first varnished on both sides with shellac varnish, the blue print being then put on with a paste composed of ordinary starch, after which the face of the print is varnished with the shellac. Experiments show that starch is the only kind of paste that proves satisfactory in this case; also that unless the iron is previously varnished it oxidizes under the print and spoils the lines.

It appears that in Scotland there is a company which pays a certain amount yearly to a number of iron works for the privilege of collecting the smoke and gases from the blast furnaces. These are passed through several miles of wrought iron tubing, and as the gases cool there is deposited a considerable yield of oil; one plant is reported to yield twenty-five thousand gallons of furnace oil per week. The sum paid for this privilege is such as to be profitable, it is said, to both parties. The oil thus obtained is distilled, and a considerable quantity of cresol, phenol, and some other substances are procured from it, while the oil remaining is used as an enricher of gas for illuminating purposes.